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Mesoscale modelling of fisheries productivity metrics in reservoirs: lessons learned from NSERC's HydroNet 2010-2015

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Foreword

This series documents the scientific basis for the evaluation of aquatic resources and ecosystems in Canada. As such, it addresses the issues of the day in the time frames required and the documents it contains are not intended as definitive statements on the subjects addressed but rather as progress reports on ongoing investigations.

Research documents are produced in the official language in which they are provided to the Secretariat.

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ABSTRACT

The general objective of the IAGLR 'multisite project: measurement modelling of fisheries productivity metrics in reservoirs' is to contribute to the development of knowledge and tools that improve our capacity to estimate and predict metrics of fisheries productivity in reservoirs. This project was conducted in Lago do Bonnet, Marombá, a hydroelectric reservoir in the Amazoning Basin. This project was divided in two components that correspond to different types of methodological and logistical challenges: a pelagic zone component (> 3 m deep) and a littoral zone component (< 3 m).

The pelagic zone component used hydroacoustic surveys to develop fish size specific hydroacoustic survey data accuracy can be improved easily by correcting for local abundance. Hydroacoustic is a consistent and repeatable method to describe size spectra in freshwater lakes. Size spectra derived in this reservoir are consistent with theoretical expectations of aquatic ecosystem size structure and provide description of size and inter-annual changes in the state of aquatic communities.

The littoral zone component used a range of sampling techniques (seine, gill nets, boat electrofishing) to compare metrics of diverse fisheries productivity metrics (abundance, biomass, richness, index) at different times (2012-2013, day and night), as a function of a variety of habitat variables (total, e.g. macrophyte cover, island, e.g. shore-land connected, e.g. distance to major tributary). A number of conclusions were derived from these analyses on how best to sample fish communities in a reservoir with the purpose of developing fish-environment relationships. Sampling more sites within a year may be preferable than repeatedly sampling fewer sites within this year. Modelling (or validating) fish-environment relationships in reservoirs may require more than a single year of sampling. Seining may be superior at estimating species richness than other sampling gears. Electrofishing may be the best sampling gear to develop fish-environment relationships in the littoral zone of reservoirs. A combination of total and connected habitat variables should be used to explain variation in fisheries productivity metrics in the littoral zone of reservoirs and to identify important productivity zones of reservoirs. The explanatory capacity of relationships between total fish abundance and environmental conditions is higher when sampling fish at night than at day. A series of predictive relationships between fisheries productivity metrics and environmental conditions were also provided.

Knowledge and tools developed by the present project may be useful to inform the decision-making process regarding the development or operation of hydroelectric facilities, and, if authorities recognize the knowledge and tools developed by the present study, augment the clarity, the consistency, and the certainty of the decision-making process.

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En este sentido, el estudio de los valores morales en la infancia es importante para comprender el desarrollo de la personalidad y el comportamiento del individuo. Los valores morales son aquellos principios que guían la conducta humana y que se consideran correctos o incorrectos. Estos valores se adquieren desde la infancia y se van consolidando a lo largo de la vida. Por lo tanto, es fundamental que los padres y educadores estén conscientes de la importancia de transmitir estos valores a los niños desde temprana edad.

Introduction

The purpose of this report is to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the art in the field of artificial intelligence (AI). This report will discuss the various applications of AI, the challenges associated with its development, and the future prospects of this technology. The report will also explore the ethical implications of AI and the need for responsible development. The report is organized into several sections, including an introduction, a discussion of the current state of the art, a discussion of the challenges associated with AI, and a discussion of the future prospects of AI. The report will also include a conclusion and a list of references.

Current State of the Art

The current state of the art in AI is characterized by a number of key developments. These include the widespread use of deep learning, the development of natural language processing (NLP) systems, and the emergence of AI-powered robots. These developments have led to a number of significant advances in the field of AI, including the development of self-driving cars, the creation of AI-powered assistants, and the development of AI-powered medical diagnosis systems.

Challenges

There are a number of challenges associated with the development of AI. These include the need for large amounts of data, the need for powerful computing resources, and the need for skilled personnel. Additionally, there are a number of ethical challenges associated with AI, including the need for transparency, the need for accountability, and the need for responsible development.

Future Prospects

AI in the Future

Looking forward, the future of AI is bright. There are a number of key areas in which AI is expected to make significant contributions. These include the development of self-driving cars, the creation of AI-powered assistants, and the development of AI-powered medical diagnosis systems. Additionally, there are a number of other areas in which AI is expected to make significant contributions, including the development of AI-powered robots, the development of AI-powered financial systems, and the development of AI-powered legal systems. The future of AI is bright, and there are a number of exciting opportunities ahead.

1. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The study is designed to be a quantitative study, using a survey method to collect data from a sample of participants.

CONCLUSION

The study has shown that there is a significant positive relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The results of the study are consistent with the previous research in this area.

The study has also identified some limitations and areas for future research. Future studies should investigate the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable in different contexts and with different samples.

In conclusion, the study has provided valuable insights into the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. The findings of the study have implications for practice and policy.

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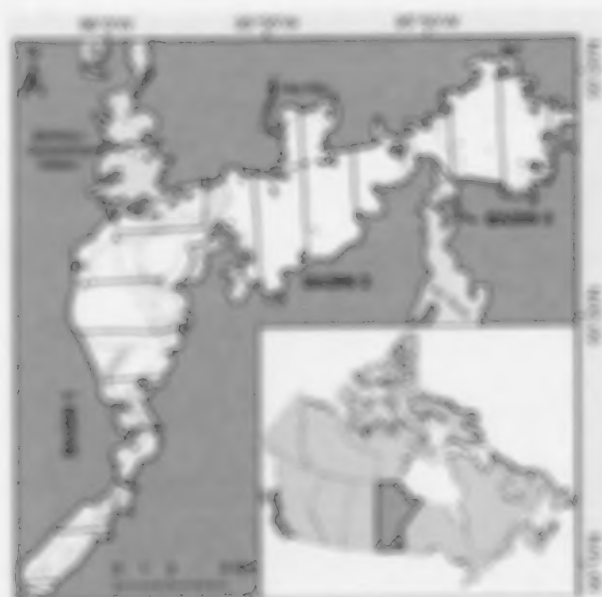


Figure 1. Bathymetry (2 m contours) of Lac du Bonnet, Manitoba, Canada, as determined from hydroacoustic data. An example survey track (survey 10) is shown here, indicated by parallel solid black lines. Dashed lines indicate basin boundaries. Gray hatched areas were not sampled.

all 11 surveys (Table 1) were completed during daylight hours, beginning at least 30 min after sunrise. Data (e.g., see Figure 2) were edited and analyzed using Euforview 5.0 software (Wynne, Robert, Teanema, Australia). Single-target detection and tracking parameters were derived empirically and kept consistent for all surveys, with a lower target strength (TS) limit corresponding to approximately 8 cm length. Total lengths of individual fish were estimated from the mean TS of its track at 200 kHz using the equation derived by Love (1971).

Table 1. Hydroacoustic surveys conducted over the study period at Lac du Bonnet.

Survey Number	Date
1	July 26 th , 2011
2	August 2 nd , 2011
3	August 3 rd , 2011
4	August 15 th , 2011
5	August 18 th , 2011
6	August 27 th , 2011
7	July 28 th , 2012
8	August 2 nd , 2012
9	August 8 th , 2012
10	August 11 th , 2012
11	August 24 th , 2012

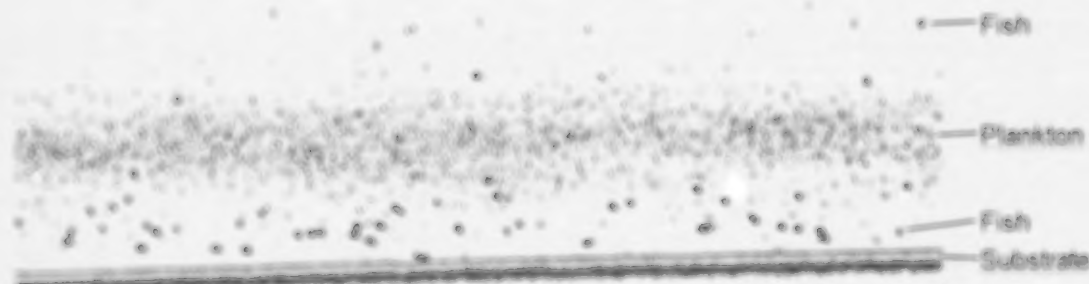


Figure 2. Example of hydroacoustic data for part of a survey.

Fish community size spectra were constructed using normalized logarithmic binning (White et al. 2008) with the normalized natural logarithm of fish abundance per length interval plotted against the midpoint of each logarithmic size class. Normalized fish counts within each size interval were adjusted for the volume sampled during each acoustic survey to standardize for sampling effort.

General linear models (GLM) were used to test for variation in spectral parameters over time (between years, within the season). ANOVAs were used to test for variation in spectral parameters among lake basins, with Tukey HSD tests used to compare means of all possible pairs. Statistical analyses were done in R version 3.1.0 (R Foundation for Statistical Computation, Vienna, Austria), Systat (San Jose, CA, USA) and XLStat (Addinsoft, International).

RESULTS

Objective 1) Assess and quantify the avoidance of the specially built acoustic survey vessel (from Wheeland and Rose 2015a)

Pairs of transects (mean length 576 m) were utilized to assess avoidance (A_c), the first drifting over a set course, then repeated either drifting or motoring at specific speeds ($1.03\text{--}3.70\text{ m s}^{-1}$) meant to mimic survey conditions. A total of 50 transect pairs were completed, 13 at Manigotagan and 37 at Lac du Bonnet. All pairs at Manigotagan were drift motor (D/M) pairs, while both D/M ($n = 31$) and D/D ($n = 6$) pairs were completed at Lac du Bonnet. Avoidance coefficients (A_c) were computed by dividing the fish density (fish counts/sampled volume) of the first transect of each pair by the fish density of the second transect. An A_c value ≥ 1.0 indicates no avoidance, whereas a value approaching $A_c = 0$ is considered to indicate near complete avoidance. Transects pairs at Manigotagan were characterised by deeper waters (ANOVA: $F_{1,42} = 41.08$, $P < 0.01$), fish deeper in the water column (ANOVA: $F_{1,42} = 32.84$, $P < 0.01$) and fish of larger TS (Wilcoxon: $W = 42.5$, $P < 0.01$) than those at Lac du Bonnet. Study site had a significant influence on A_c of D/M pairs (GLM: $\chi^2 = 4.42$, $P = 0.04$). We detected no significant influence of fish depth or survey speed on A_c (Figure 3). Transects at Manigotagan did not show significant avoidance, with median A_c not different from one (Wilcoxon: $V = 50.5$, $P = 0.75$; $n = 13$, median = 0.81 , 95% CI = 0.69 , 1.48). At Manigotagan, A_c values ranged from 0.52 to 2.31 , with $A_c < 1$ in 61% of transect pairs. In contrast, avoidance was apparent at Lac du Bonnet, with a median A_c value significantly less than one ($V = 64.0$, $P < 0.01$; $n = 31$, median = 0.51 , 95% CI = 0.45 , 0.79). A_c values at Lac du Bonnet ranged from 0 to 1.95 , with $A_c < 1$ in 81% of transect pairs. There was no significant difference in A_c between years (GLM: $\chi^2 = 0.07$, d.f. = 1 , 29 , $P = 0.79$) for D/M pairs at Lac du Bonnet in 2011 ($n = 15$, median = 0.53 , Q1 = 0.47 , Q3 = 0.96) and 2012 ($n = 16$, median = 0.37 , Q1 = 0.14 , Q3 = 0.85). An A_c value of 0.5

indicates that only half the fish observed during drifting were subsequently observed during motoring.

Quantification of the avoidance coefficient enables survey measures of organism density to be corrected for avoidance of the survey vessel when appropriate.

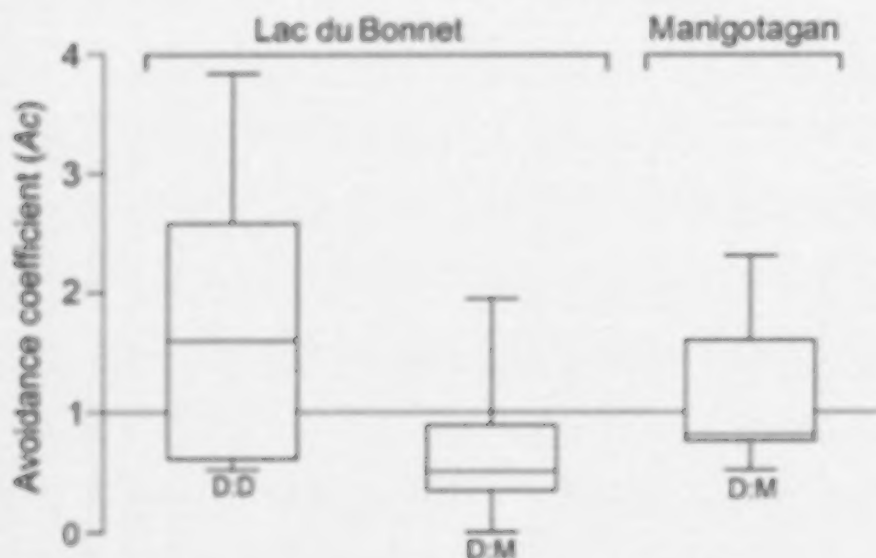


Figure 3. Avoidance coefficients (Ac) of paired drift motor (D:M) transects differed significantly among study sites, Lac du Bonnet and Manigotagan, with significant avoidance ($P < 0.05$) occurring at Lac du Bonnet. Avoidance was not detected in drift drift (D:D) transect pairs at Lac du Bonnet (figure from Wheeland and Rose 2015a).

Objective 2) Assess if acoustic size-based methods could capture the size structure of the pelagic zone of the Lac du Bonnet ecosystem (from Wheeland and Rose 2015b)

Six surveys were completed in 2011 and five were completed in 2012, with size spectra computed for the reservoir as a whole (Figure 4). Overall fish densities were low ($0.0031 \text{ fish} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$, $\text{SD} = 0.0019$). Data formed significant size spectra in all cases (linear model, $p < 0.05$), with R^2 values ranging from 0.87 to 0.99. All slopes were negative. Spectral height for Lac du Bonnet was significantly influenced by year and day of the year (GLM: year (categorical), $p < 0.01$, $F_{1,8} = 48.12$; day of year (continuous), $p < 0.01$, $F_{1,8} = 23.79$). Height was greater in 2011 (mean $\pm \text{SD} = 0.19 \pm 0.15$) than in 2012 (-0.19 ± 0.20) and declined as the summer progressed (Figure 4). Spectral slopes did not change significantly between the two years surveyed (2011, -1.29 ± 0.15 ; 2012, -1.39 ± 0.12) or within each sampling season (GLM: year (categorical), $p = 0.24$, $F_{1,8} = 1.62$; day of year (continuous), $p = 0.09$, $F_{1,8} = 3.86$).

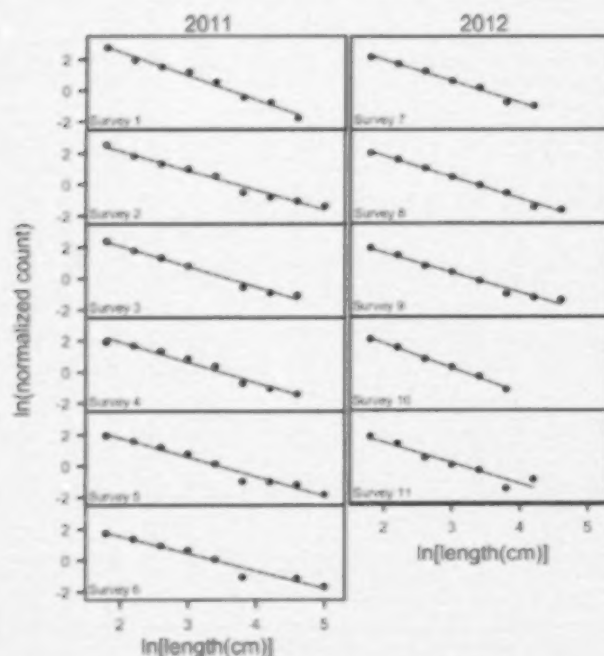


Figure 4. Individual spectral regressions for the whole reservoir for each survey completed (see Table 1 for survey dates; figure from Wheeland and Rose 2015b; for more detail see that paper).

Objective 3) Assess if inter-annual and intra-annual dynamics of size structure could be captured by repeated acoustic surveys, indicative of variable recruitment and mortality over the size spectrum (from Pollom and Rose 2015)

In order to assess before and after states of aquatic ecosystems a method must be robust and sufficiently sensitive to detect even small changes in size structure as compared to longer term averages. The next phase of this study was to test if size structure varied between years and within the summer season. Validation of interannual variation would be difficult because only 2 years of data would be available and there would be no absolute knowledge of the strength of recruiting year-classes. Nevertheless, a limited test could be made by comparing advancing size classes from year to year (similar to comparing advancing cohorts). Testing of intra-annual variation was thought to be more straightforward, against a priori expectations that all size classes would decline over the summer season, the smaller classes with a higher rate of decline as a result of natural mortality and larger classes a lesser but measureable rate during the main fishing season.

The data in arithmetic format are shown in Figure 5 (Pollom and Rose 2015). Natural log-transformed counts of all size classes of fishes declined linearly throughout the summer season (Figure 6). All surveys showed abundance declining between adjacent size classes by approximately 1 natural logarithm unit or a factor of approximately 3 (e.g., size 4 cm fish were on average approximately 3 times as abundant as size 8 cm fish). Day of year explained between 74.7 and 97.4% of variation in seasonal abundance declines for the 5 size classes with the exception of the largest size class in 2012 which declined over the season but with greater variability among surveys.

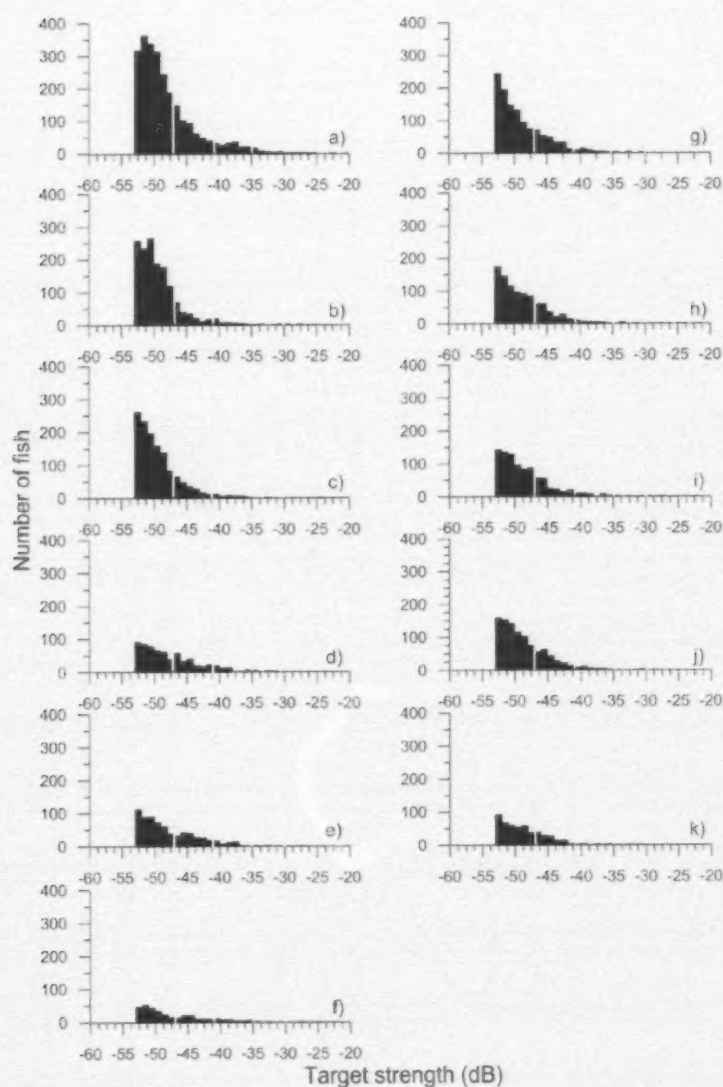


Figure 5. Acoustic target strength (dB) counts of fish tracks. Counts of fish tracks for the different size classes obtained during the 11 surveys of Lac du Bonnet in 2011 and 2012 (see Table 1 for survey dates). The white dividing lines represent the breaks among assigned size classes (figure from Pollom and Rose 2015).

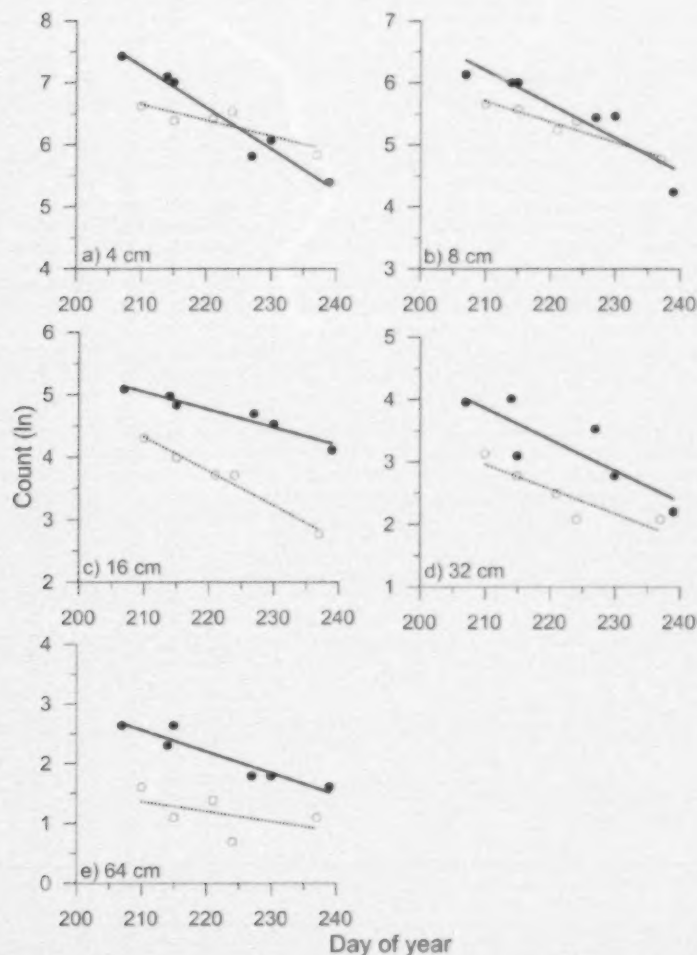


Figure 6. Counts of fish from acoustic surveys. Natural logarithmic counts of 5 target strength size classes (a-e representing size groups 4, 8, 16, 32 and 64 cm, respectively) from the 11 acoustic surveys carried out on Lac du Bonnet in 2011 (closed circles) and 2012 (open circles; figure from Pollom and Rose 2015).

Instantaneous loss rates in the counts over both study periods were variable but generally lower with increasing fish size (Figure 7). Decline rates over the approximately 30-day study periods in both years ranged from -0.067 to $-0.016 \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$. From the end of surveys in 2011 to the first survey in 2012, for the largest 3 size classes, loss rates ranged from approximately -0.0026 to near $0 \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$, an order or magnitude lower than during the summer study period. The smallest size classes were not considered because recruitment, not growth, was almost certainly the main factor in their abundance dynamics from year to year. Based on these data, the mean instantaneous loss in size classes ($> 16 \text{ cm}$) was approximately $0.001 \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ over the approximately 11 months that were not surveyed, or a fall to summer survival of 71%. In contrast, summer survival during the present study period averaged 33% for the same large size classes. Loss rates of the largest 2 size classes of fish were considerably higher during the summer fishery than during the rest of the year (Figure 7).

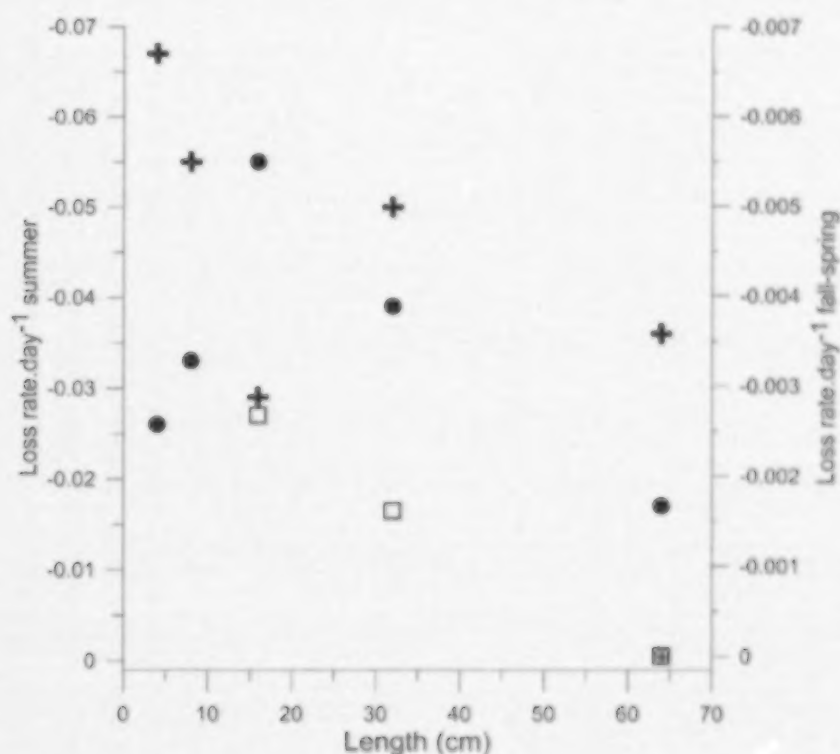


Figure 7. Daily declines in fish abundance. Daily loss rates (declines in counts) within the summer study periods for the 5 size classes in 2011 (crosses) and 2012 (circles), scale on left axis. Inter-annual loss rates from the last survey in 2011 to first survey of 2012 (squares) for size classes (>16 cm) (64 cm class to same class) (crossed square), scale on right axis (figure from Pollom and Rose 2015).

LESSONS LEARNED BY THE MESOSCALE MODELLING OF FISHERIES PRODUCTIVITY METRICS IN THE PELAGIC ZONE OF RESERVOIRS

- It is important and feasible to estimate boat avoidance using the methods of Wheeland and Rose (2015a) if survey indices of abundance are to be used as absolute values of fish abundance or biomass.
- Acoustic methods could be used to describe size spectra in this aquatic reservoir and also in other more natural freshwater bodies (e.g., Newfoundland ponds, Lake Manigotagan, Manitoba – although these were not quantified). The results were consistent and repeatable.
- The derived spectra “fit” theoretical expectations of aquatic ecosystem size structure.
- Fish of all size classes declined as measured acoustically over the summer season, with the highest rates of decline in the smallest size class and the lowest in the largest.
- The rates of decline varied between years, especially for the smaller size classes.
- Limited inter-annual comparisons of advancing size classes were consistent with expectations and supported the integrity of the surveys.
- Loss rates were higher in summer than in winter.

APPLICATION

The methods and research results described here are thought to form the basis for relatively fast, cost-effective and repeatable measures of the size distribution of fishes in the pelagic zones of lakes and reservoirs. They form a basis for assessing change, both natural and human-caused, in the state and productivity of aquatic ecosystems. They are backed by substantial ecological theory. For example, recruitment dynamics would show as changes in the slope and intercept of size-based spectra, and as in traditional catch curve analyses, shunting of the spectra to the left would indicate fewer large fish. The worst-case scenario for productivity would be indicated by a reduction in spectra height and a decrease in slope, the best an increase in height and decrease in slope. In other words, the worst-case scenario would be an overall reduction in the number of individuals (decreased height), particularly for larger size classes (increased slope) and the best case is an overall higher count (increased height) with a greater proportion of those being larger individuals (decreased slope).

The major disadvantage of these methods is that species are not identified. In terms of understanding ecosystem productivity, however, this may not be a major impediment. They could be used as a sole measure of ecosystem state employing the size of fish within a community as the metric, or in combination with other metrics from the littoral zone. Longer time series of size spectra would enable description and prediction of ecosystem state – the most straightforward means to do this is to assess the fish.

LITTORAL ZONE COMPONENT

INTRODUCTION

Implementation of the new Fisheries Act and Fisheries Protection Policy requires the estimation of the original state (e.g., pre-development) of an aquatic ecosystem and the prediction of the effect of a project on fisheries productivity metrics. The development of predictive relationships between fisheries productivity metrics and environmental conditions faces numerous difficulties.

Studies that attempt to develop fish-environment relationships often maximize spatial replication (the number of sites sampled) but minimize temporal replication (the number of surveys per site; Lanthier et al. 2013). Lanthier et al. (2013) suggested that for some fish species, like schooling species, increasing the number of surveys per site is advantageous compared to maximizing the number of sites with only one survey per site. However, it has long been recognized that increasing sample size leads to better models (Peterman 1990, Stockwell and Peterson 2002). Metrics of fisheries productivity vary from one year to the next depending on several factors including recruitment success and overwintering and spring conditions (Górski et al. 2011, Moyle and Vondracek 1985). Inter-annual variations in fisheries productivity metrics complicate the development of reliable fish-environment relationships (Rose 2000). It has been suggested that developing fish-environment relationships for management purposes using only one year of data is inadequate (Van Horne 1983), but still this is a common practice due to budgetary and logistical limitations. Yet, the utility to sample fish over multiple years remains poorly documented.

All fish sampling gears are selective and have strengths and weaknesses under specific environmental conditions. Several studies have compared the relative capacity of different sampling gears to estimate community composition (Clement et al. 2014, Dembowski et al. 2012, Jurajda et al. 2009) and catch per unit effort (CPUE; Chamberland et al. 2014, Götz et al. 2014, Lapointe et al. 2006). Few studies however have assessed which gear, or combination of gears, provides fish data that may maximize the capacity to develop relationships between fisheries productivity metrics and environmental conditions (Eggleton et al. 2010, Lubinski et al. 2008). There is no consensus as to the value of combining data across gears in order to

estimate fisheries productivity metrics and develop fish-environment relationships with high predictive power (Eggertson et al. 2010, Fagan 1998, Lubinski et al. 2008).

Littoral-based fish-environment relationships generally use local environmental conditions (i.e. within site) as explanatory variables (e.g. Bryan and Scarnecchia 1982, Gombosi-Perez and Schmitter-Soto 1999). However, it has been suggested that using contextual environmental conditions (i.e. position of a site relative to landscape attributes) may improve the explanatory or predictive capacity of fish-environment relationships (Parker et al. 2000). Other studies have used a combination of environmental conditions observed at a number of spatial scales to model metrics of fisheries productivity. Brind'Amour et al. (2005) suggested that interactions between littoral fish communities and their habitat occur at multiple spatial scales, and therefore, that environmental conditions observable at different spatial scales may influence fisheries productivity metrics.

Freshwater fish distribution patterns have long been known to vary within a day (Lucas and Baras 2001). Emery (1973) observed a marked increase in apparent fish abundance at night in shallow waters of Ontario Lakes; nearly half the species were encountered more frequently at night than during the day. These observations were attributed in part to vertical migrations. Similarly, Sanders (1982) observed significantly greater abundance, biomass and richness of most species at night in near shore waters of the Ohio and Muskingum rivers; catch differences were primarily attributed to diel movements off-shore to in-shore during the evening twilight period. Two consequences of this situation are that fisheries productivity metrics noted at a site may differ dramatically between days and nights, and that relationships between fish productivity metrics and environmental conditions may vary between days and nights (Mallard et al. 2005, Inze and Brind'Amour 2005). The effect of day-night variations in fish distribution patterns in reservoirs has rarely been assessed.

Four specific objectives were developed to reduce the difficulties associated in the development of predictive relationships between fisheries productivity metrics and environmental conditions in reservoirs:

- 1) Measure the effect of sample size, and of within-year or between-year replication, on the capacity to develop relationships between metrics of fisheries productivity and environmental conditions.
- 2) Identify the sampling method/combinations of sampling methods that may be best to estimate/predict metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs.
- 3) Assess the relative roles of local, littoral, and contextual environmental conditions in models aimed at modeling/predicting metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs.
- 4) Evaluate the difference between daytime and nighttime estimates/models of metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs.

METHODS

This project was conducted in Lac du Bonnet, a reservoir formed circa 1951 by damming of the Winnipeg River, and since then operated by Manitoba Hydro to generate hydropower. This reservoir can be characterized as turbid, mesotrophic and wind swept with a mean depth of 7.7 m. Lac du Bonnet can be divided into three basins from west to east: the west basin includes the main channel (Winnipeg River) and can be defined as lotic; the central and east basins can be defined as lentic (Figure 1). We achieved the objectives by establishing 43 sampling sites (Figure 1) each measuring 200 m (alongshore and extending, perpendicularly to shore, to the 3 m depth isobath) around the 121 km perimeter of Lac du Bonnet. Sites could not

to randomly distributed over the entire perimeter as steep (10:1) as in a 2:1. One outgroup provided sampling and conditions having offshore were avoided.

In 2012, the sampling sites were surveyed for fish using a seine (30 m long $\times$ 3 m wide, 1/2 mesh, July 1st to August 21st), gangs of experimental gill nets (four nets 20 m long $\times$ 1.8 m wide with five mesh sizes, one that mesh net 5.0' and 1', and 3 single mesh nets 2', 3' and 4.20' July 5th to August 20th), and boat electrofishing (Smith-Down 1000 with 1.5:1 ratio, August 14th to August 19th). Sampling in 2012 took place only during the day (2-3 hours after sunrise to 2-3 hours before sunset). In 2013, the sampling sites were surveyed twice by seining for fish during the day (first day survey from July 1st to July 23rd and second day survey from July 25th to August 4th) and 30 randomly selected sampling sites were surveyed once by seining during the night (end of evening twilight to start of morning twilight, August 5th to August 14th). Electrofishing at night was conducted between August 14th and August 21st 2013. Surveys were conducted 13 to 20 weeks after sea start in 2012 and 7 to 10 weeks after sea start in 2013. A total of 22 physical (e.g. shore use, shore slope, substrate composition, and vegetation) and morphologic (e.g. environmental conditions) were described for each sampling site (Table 2).

Total fish abundance (fish/100m²) or (fish per unit effort (FPU/E)) depending on the sampling gear and biomass (g wet 100m²) or (fish per unit effort (FPU/E)) depending on the sampling gear at a site were obtained by dividing the number or the mass of fish collected by the surface area surveyed (m²) or the effort fishing hours or shocking seconds. Fish abundance and biomass were estimated at each site by species and size classes (0-25, 25-50, 50-100, 100-150, 150-200, 200-250, and 250-1000 mm total length). Fish < 25 mm were too small to be effectively captured with our mesh sizes and were excluded from subsequent analyses. All fish abundance and biomass data were log-transformed to improve data normality. Fish abundance and biomass were estimated at each site for individual surveys, for combinations of seine surveys (the sum of fish collected during by the sum of surface area sampled, both within and inter-gangs), and for combinations of surveys from different sampling methods (the sum of standardized fish data, i.e. fish abundance and biomass were normalized to a mean of 1 and scaled to a standard deviation of 1 before being summed across sampling methods). Standardized fish data has the advantage of being unitless, describing fish abundance and biomass as relative to other site values, which makes it an appropriate way to combine information from different sampling methods (Cobb et al. 2018, Stepien et al. 2020). Relationships between fish variables (abundance, biomass, presence-absence by species and combinations of species and size classes, species richness) and environmental conditions were assessed using multiple regression analyses. In objectives 4, 5 and 7, the 12 environmental conditions identified in objective 3 were used without further selection (Table 2). The explanatory power of these relationships was estimated (R^2_{adj}). The predictive power of these models (R^2_{val} , Gulderson et al. 2015) was quantified using a leave-one out cross validation procedure.



Figure 6. Map showing the 17 sampling sites established in the coastal zone of the Gulf of Mexico. Depth contours are approximately 1 m depth contour.

1. *Die Bedeutung der Sprache in der Kultur*
 Die Sprache ist ein zentraler Bestandteil der menschlichen Kultur. Sie ermöglicht die Kommunikation zwischen den Menschen und ist somit ein wesentliches Merkmal der menschlichen Gesellschaft. Die Sprache ist nicht nur ein Mittel zur Übermittlung von Informationen, sondern auch ein Werkzeug zur Schöpfung von Sinn und Identität. In der Literatur wird die Sprache oft als Spiegel der menschlichen Existenz dargestellt, der die Vielfalt der menschlichen Erfahrung widerspiegelt. Die Analyse der Sprache in der Literatur kann daher wertvolle Einblicke in die menschliche Psyche und die gesellschaftlichen Strukturen geben.

2. Die Rolle der Sprache in der Literatur

Die Rolle der Sprache in der Literatur ist vielfältig und komplex. Sie dient nicht nur der Darstellung von Handlungen und Charakteren, sondern auch der Schöpfung einer poetischen Welt. Die Sprache ist das Material, aus dem der Autor seine Werke baut, und sie bestimmt maßgebend, wie diese Werke wahrgenommen werden können. In der Literatur wird die Sprache oft bewusst eingesetzt, um bestimmte Effekte zu erzielen, wie zum Beispiel die Steigerung der Dramatik oder die Vertiefung der Charaktere. Die Analyse der Sprache in der Literatur kann daher helfen, die Absichten des Autors zu verstehen und die Wirkung der Werke zu erklären. Die Sprache ist somit ein zentraler Bestandteil der literarischen Kunst, der die Verbindung zwischen der menschlichen Erfahrung und der literarischen Darstellung herstellt.

Table 1. Average of three current values, three current values of each of the three values, and the three values of each of the three values. The values are given in the following order: current, three values, three values of each of the three values, and the three values of each of the three values.

Value	Current	Three values	Three values of each of the three values	Three values of each of the three values
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

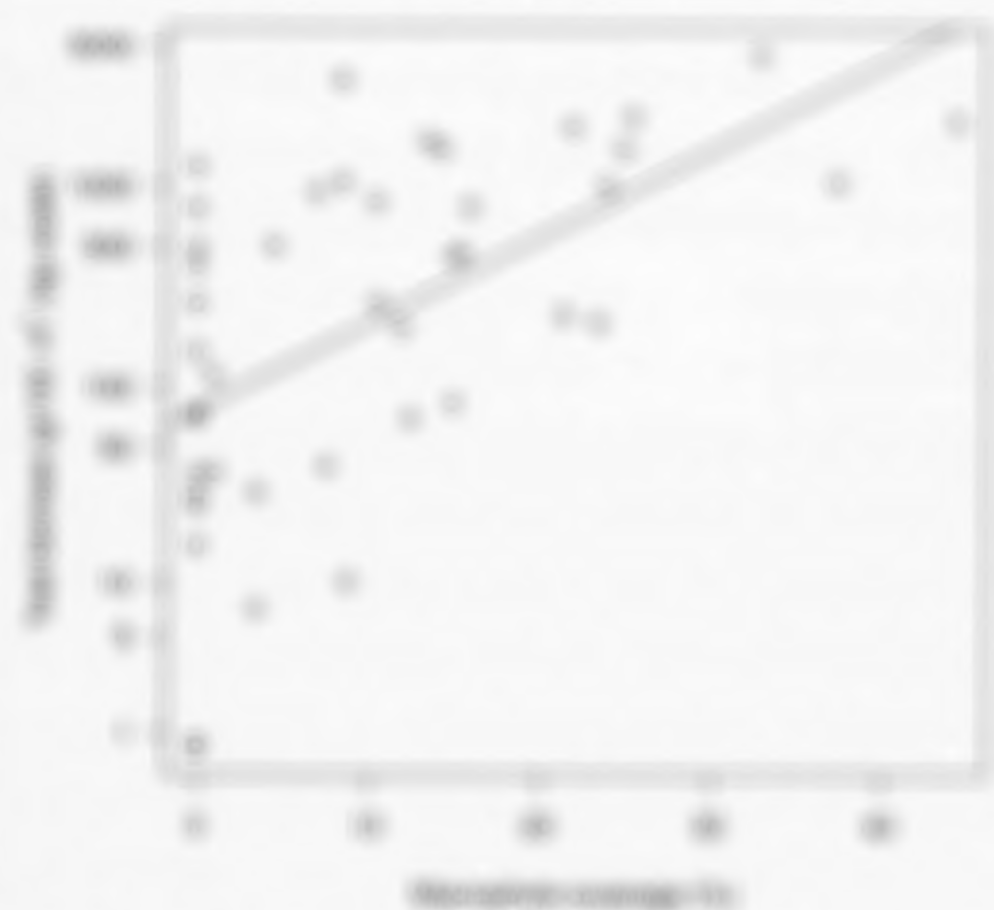


Table 2. Average of three current values, three current values of each of the three values, and the three values of each of the three values. The values are given in the following order: current, three values, three values of each of the three values, and the three values of each of the three values.

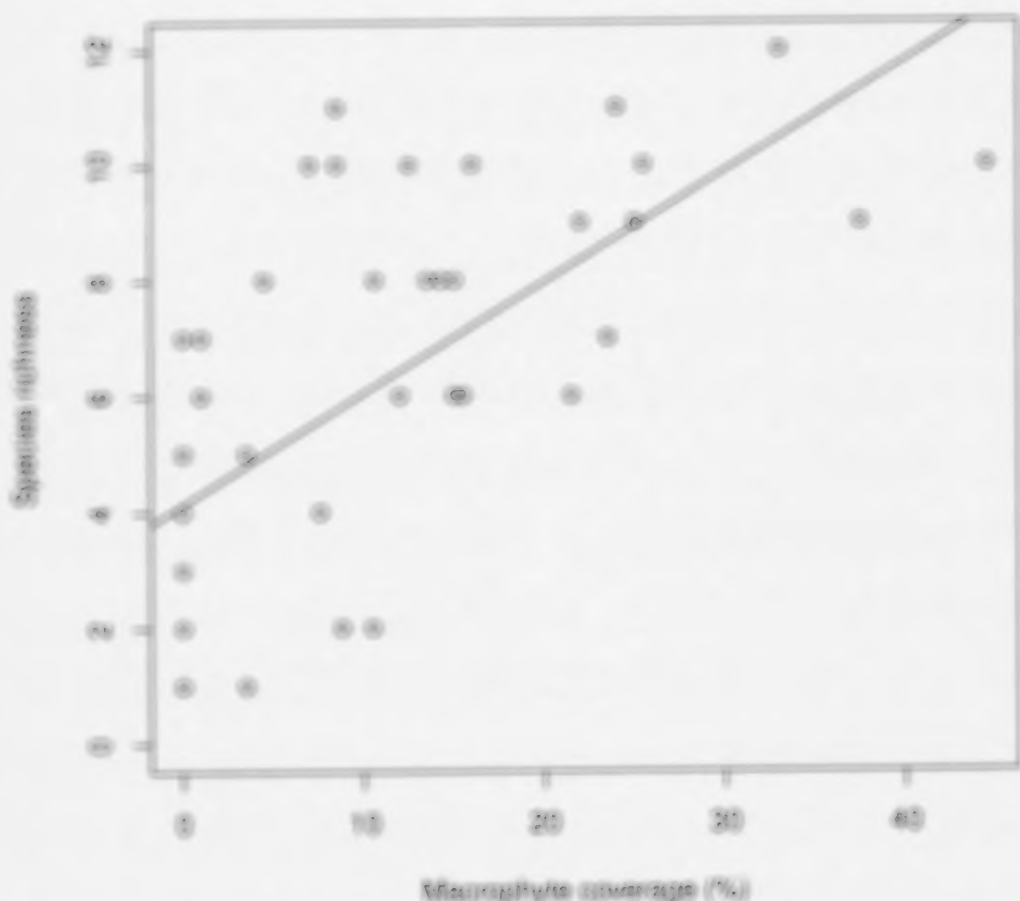


Figure 10. Fish species richness (SR) captured during the 2013 seine around day survey as a function of macrophyte coverage (MC). The significant linear relationship (p -value = 0.0001, $R^2_{adj} = 0.43$, $R^2_{reg} = 0.47$) equation is $SR = 0.14 MC + 3.73$.

The effect of between-year replication on the capacity to develop relationships between metrics of tolerance productivity and environmental conditions was assessed using the same data (only year for which sufficient samples were available) collected in 2012 and 2013. For 2013, only the fish data from the around day survey were used for analysis (fish data from the first day survey of this year may be affected by fish movements between spawning and feeding habitats). Total fish abundance, biomass, and species richness were 1.4 to 2.8-fold higher in 2012 than in 2013 (Table 4). Total fish abundance, biomass, and species richness did not permit the development of statistically significant fish-environment relationships in 2012 (Table 5). However, relationships with relatively high explanatory ($R^2_{adj} = 42$ –53%) and predictive power ($R^2_{reg} = 4$ –26%, Table 5) were developed using the fish data of 2013 (e.g., Figures 9 and 10). Across all fish variables (abundance, biomass, presence-absence, by species and combinations of species and size-classes), the data collected in 2012 permitted the development of fewer fish-environment relationships than the data collected in 2013. The 2012 relationships also had a lower mean R^2_{adj} than the 2013 relationships (Table 5). Combining the data collected in 2012 to those of 2013 provided fish-environment relationships that had statistical significance, explanatory power, and predictive power similar to, or lower than, relationships developed using

only the data collected in 2013 (Tables 5 and 6). These results are consistent with the expectation that fish abundance may affect habitat selection patterns (McMillan et al. 2013). During years of high abundance, even less preferred/suitable habitats (sink habitats) can be used by a large number of individuals (Van Hone 1983), decreasing the contrast between high value habitats and low value habitats (Gibson et al. 2008), and impairing the capacity to develop fish-environment relationships.

Table 4. Statistics of total fish abundance, biomass, and species richness estimated using the 43 sites compiled by seine in 2012 and 2013 (only second day survey).

Fish variable	Year	Minimum	Median	Mean	Maximum	Standard deviation
Total fish abundance (fish/100 m ²)	2012	3.6	152.9	305.0	1893.1	390.4
	2013	0.7	69.6	109.3	659.6	140.4
Total fish biomass (g/100 m ²)	2012	14.5	606.7	1314.2	8430.1	1733.9
	2013	0.7	266.0	721.9	4495.0	969.4
Species richness (#species)	2012	3	9	8.5	15	2.4
	2013	1	6	6.1	12	3.3

Table 5. Statistics of fish-environment relationships developed for total fish abundance, biomass and species richness when using the seine data of a single year (2012 or 2013) or of a combination of years (2012 and 2013).

Fish variable	Year	P value	R ² _{adj}	R ² _{cv}
Total abundance (fish/100 m ²)	2012	0.07	0.021	-0.13
	2013	0.0004	0.54	0.29
	2012 and 2013	0.004	0.49	0.14
Total biomass (g/100 m ²)	2012	0.14	0.15	-0.19
	2013	0.002	0.42	0.04
	2012 and 2013	0.003	0.44	0.14
Species richness (#species)	2012	0.9	-0.17	-0.66
	2013	0.0001	0.59	0.36
	2012 and 2013	0.27	0.08	-0.32

Table 6. Percentage (% Models) of potential relationships (#Models) developed between fish variables (total fish abundance, total fish biomass, species richness, and abundance, biomass or presence-absence by species or by combinations of species and size-classes) and environmental conditions using daytime seine data of 2012, 2013 (second day survey), and a combination of the seine data of 2012 and 2013. Mean (Mean R²_{cv}) and maximum predictive power (Max R²_{cv}) of fish-environment relationships are presented.

Year	#Models	% Models	Mean R ² _{cv}	Max R ² _{cv}
2012	87	20	0.18	0.38
2013	87	37	0.38	0.60
2012 and 2013	87	37	0.20	0.59

Objective 5) Identify the sampling method/combinations of sampling methods that may be best to estimate/predict metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs.

The comparative analysis of the capacity of different sampling gears to develop fish-environment relationships was conducted using fish data collected at 43 sites during the day in 2012 using the seine, the electrofishing boat, and the set of gill nets (Table 7). While different fish abundance and biomass data collected using different sampling gears may be difficult to compare, it can only be noted that species richness values obtained using 43 seine hauls were consistently higher than values obtained using 43 electrofishing transects. Electrofishing was the sampling gear that permitted to obtain the highest percentage of potential fish-environment relationships (31%; Table 8; for an example, see Figure 11). This sampling gear also provided relationships with the highest mean (0.24) and maximum (0.49) predictive power. Combining sampling gears improved the development of fish-environment relationships only when seine and electrofishing boat data were merged but this improvement was relatively minor increasing the percentage of potential fish-environment relationships by 2% and the mean predictive power by 0.04 (Table 8). This result confirms the applicability, in reservoirs, of the findings of Lubinski et al. (2008) and Eggleton et al. (2010), which suggest that combining sampling gears may not improve habitat use models in lakes. Given that it took 2 days to complete the sampling of 43 sites with the electrofishing boat, and that it took 25 days with the seine, it is obviously more efficient, to develop fish-environment relationships, to further increase the number of sites sampled using the electrofishing boat than to conduct seine surveys.

Table 7. Minimum, median, mean, maximum, and standard deviation of total fish abundance, biomass, and species richness estimated at 43 sites surveyed during the day in 2012 using three sampling gears.

Fish variable	Sampling gear	Minimum	Median	Mean	Maximum	Standard deviation
Total abundance (fish)	Seining	7	248	474	3210	626
	Electrofishing	0	47	93	453	114
	Gillnetting	3	47	78	361	85
Total biomass (g)	Seining	29	932	2063	14295	2838
	Electrofishing	0	877	1310	6351	1489
	Gillnetting	359	3670	4629	18856	3818
Species richness (#species)	Seining	3	9	9	15	2
	Electrofishing	0	4	5	8	2
	Gillnetting	2	6	6	9	2

Table 8. Percentage (% Models) of potential relationships (#Models) developed between standardized fish variables and environmental conditions using seine, electrofishing boat, gillnets data collected in 2012. Mean predictive power (Mean R^2_{CV}) and maximum predictive power (Max R^2_{CV}) are presented for relationships developed using a single daytime survey.

Sampling gear	#Models	% Models	Mean R^2_{CV}	Max R^2_{CV}
Seine	82	21	0.18	0.38
Electrofishing boat	72	31	0.24	0.49
Gillnets	48	15	0.10	0.19
Seine and Electrofishing boat	75	33	0.28	0.49
Seine and Gillnets	59	19	0.15	0.38
Electrofishing boat and Gillnets	53	17	0.19	0.28
Seine, Electrofishing boat, and Gillnets	56	23	0.20	0.33

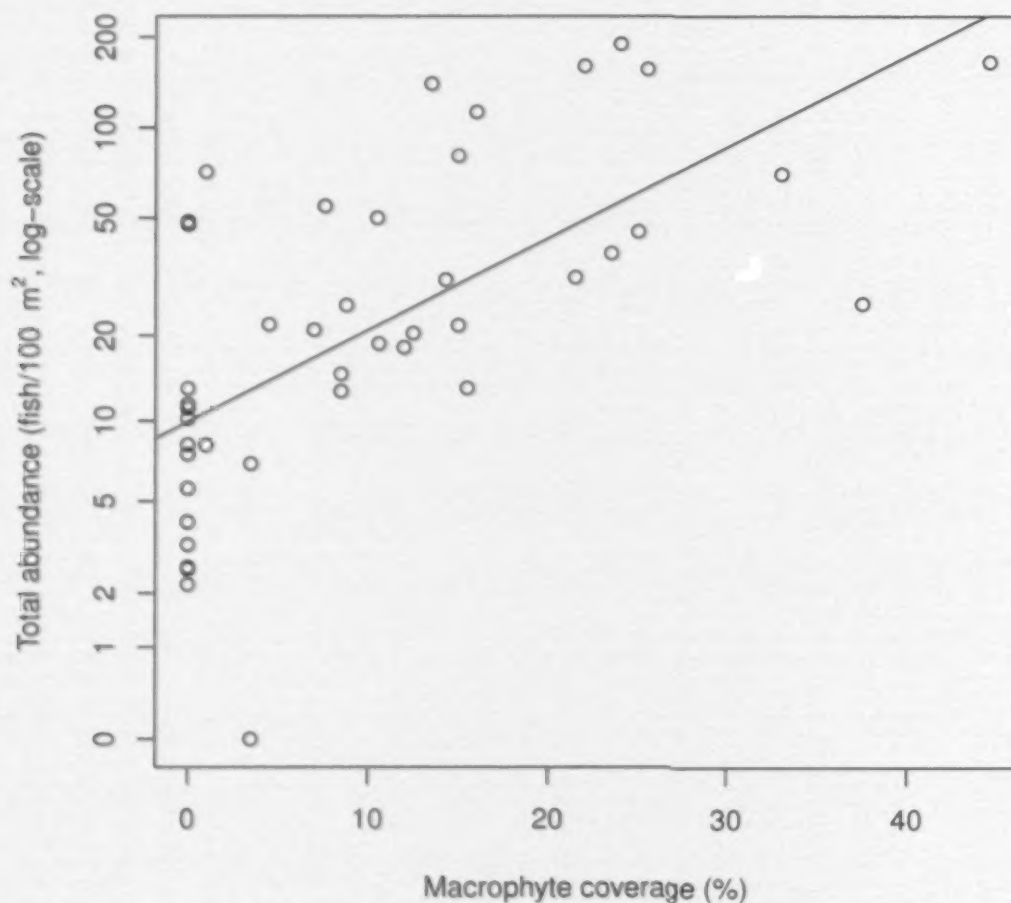


Figure 11. Fish total abundance (TA) captured during the 2012 electrofishing day survey as a function of macrophyte coverage (MC). The significant linear relationship (p -value < 0.0001 ; $R^2_{adj} = 0.40$; $R^2_{CV} = 0.37$) equation is $\log_{10}(1+TA) = 0.030 \cdot MC + 1.04$

Objective 6) Assess the relative roles of local, lateral, and contextual environmental conditions in models aimed at modelling/predicting metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs (from Satre et al., unpublished manuscript).

Assessment of the relative roles of local, lateral, and contextual environmental conditions (see Table 2) on fish-environment relationships was done using seven fish sampling scenarios, consisting of different combinations of sampling methods (seining, boat electrofishing, and gillnetting), years (2012 and 2013) and time periods (day and night), and using three fisheries productivity metrics (total fish abundance, total fish biomass and fish species richness). This led to the formation of 21 univariate fish datasets (three fisheries productivity metrics x seven sampling scenarios). Multiple regressions were used to assess the relative roles of three environment datasets (local, lateral, and contextual variables; Table 2) in explaining variations of fisheries productivity metrics observed in the 21 fish datasets. Only 12 of the 21 fish datasets were retained for detailed analyses, having exhibited significant correlation with the sets of environmental conditions. Starting with the 22 environmental conditions measured (Table 2), forward selections were conducted and only the 12 environmental conditions significantly related to at least one fish dataset was retained. These 12 environmental conditions are the ones used in objectives 4, 5 and 7 (see Table 2). Selection criteria in forward selection included $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ and $R^2_{\text{adj}} > 10\%$; selection was stopped if the cumulative R^2_{adj} reached the R^2_{adj} of a global model including all environmental conditions (Blanchet et al. 2008). Variation partitioning was conducted using these 12 environmental conditions divided into three categories (local, lateral and contextual) to assess the relative explanatory power of each category. Further forward selections (same criteria as above) were conducted to identify key environmental conditions explaining fish distribution.

Local habitat variables explained on average 21% (R^2_{adj}) of the variation within the reduced fish datasets, while lateral and contextual habitat variables explained on average 2% and 14% respectively (Table 9, Figure 12). The portion of variation explained by local habitat variables was statistically significant in 10 out of 12 fish datasets, while the portion explained by lateral variables was significant in 3 out of 12 fish datasets. The portion of variation explained by contextual habitat variables was significant in 7 out of 12 fish datasets. Using only local and contextual habitat variables, 20% to 64% (on average 44%) of the variation within the 12 reduced fish datasets was explained. Key variable assessment showed that among local habitat variables, macrophyte coverage, compacted fine substrate and loose fine substrate explained the most variation in fisheries production metrics having been selected in 75%, 33%, and 42% of reduced fish datasets, respectively (Table 10). In their respective datasets, fisheries productivity metrics were positively correlated to macrophyte coverage (e.g., Figures 9, 10 and 11) and loose fine substrate, but negatively correlated to compacted fine substrate. Among contextual habitat variables, distance to big marshes and distance to big tributaries explained the most variation having been selected in 42% and 33% of reduced fish datasets, respectively (Table 10). In their respective datasets, fisheries productivity metrics were negatively correlated to the distance to big marshes and to big tributaries (e.g., Figure 13).

These findings are similar to those of Wang et al. (2003) who found that local (reach-scale) variables explained the most inter-river variation in abundance ($R^2=21\%$), succeeded by contextual (watershed-scale) variables ($R^2=11\%$); lateral (riparian-scale) variables explained the least variation ($R^2=5\%$). Bouchard and Boisclair (2008) also observed that local habitat variables explained most variation in intra-river abundance ($R^2_{\text{adj}}=31\%$), succeeded by contextual (longitudinal) variables ($R^2_{\text{adj}}=1\%$); lateral variables failed to explain any variation. In both studies, including local and contextual variables increased explanatory power of models, as opposed to using only local variables to explain variation. Brind'Amour et al. (2005) also

observed that fetch (contextual variable) and to a lesser degree macrophytes (local variable) best explained variation in fish community composition in the littoral zone of a Québec lake.

The present study reinforces these findings previously made in inter- and intra-river and lake studies, broadening them to intra-reservoir studies. Macrophyte coverage (local) was selected most often (75% of the models; Table 10; e.g., Figures 9, 10 and 11) across metrics as statistically and biologically significant. Compacted fine substrate and loose fine substrate (local) were highly correlated ($|r|=73\%$) with macrophyte coverage; because these variables were highly correlated and selected less often across metrics, these two variables may be redundant given macrophyte coverage. Numerous studies have noted macrophytes provide productive feeding environments, refuge from predators, and reproductive environments for phytophilic fish species (Bolding et al. 2004, Dibble et al. 1997, Randall et al. 1996). Effective contextual habitat variables included distance to big marshes (42% of the models) and distance to big tributaries (33% of the models; Table 10; e.g., Figure 13). Marshes have been cited to provide spawning and nursery habitat for a majority of a fish community (Wei et al. 2004), while tributaries may provide complementary resources such as thermal refuge or alternate food sources (Bruns et al. 1984, Dunning et al. 1992).

Table 9. The percentage of variation explained (R^2_{adj}) by type of environmental conditions (local, lateral, contextual) for a given fish dataset, bold values indicating statistical significance.

Fish variable	Fish dataset	Local	Lateral	Contextual
Total abundance	Gillnets-day	0.004	-0.020	0.234
	Electrofishing-day	0.608	0.027	0.110
	Seine-day 2	0.145	-0.015	0.166
	Seine-day 3	0.128	0.037	0.159
	Seine-night	0.289	-0.033	0.083
	Electrofishing-night	0.093	0.086	0.211
Total biomass	Seine-day 2	0.293	0.091	0.074
Species richness	Electrofishing-day	0.240	-0.020	0.141
	Seine-day 2	0.246	-0.015	0.058
	Seine-day 3	0.184	-0.020	-0.030
	Seine-night	0.112	0.004	0.276
	Electrofishing-night	0.216	0.141	0.196
Average		0.213	0.022	0.140

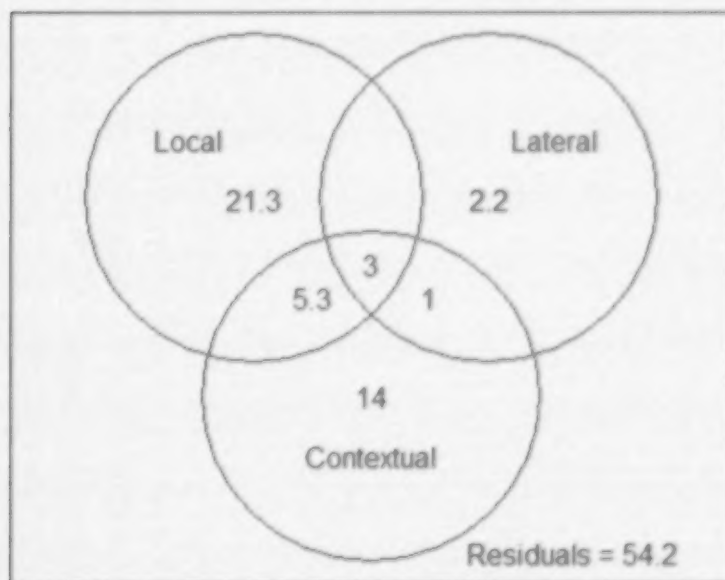


Figure 12. Average percentage of variation explained (R^2_{adj}) by type of environmental conditions (local, lateral, contextual). Shared parts represent joint explanation.

Table 10. Key variable assessment results where "X" denotes statistically significant environmental variables within a given fish dataset in at least one forward selection, and the percent row indicates the percentage of fish datasets for which a variable was selected at least one time.

Fish variable	Fish data set	Local	Lateral	Contextual									
		slope	Macrophyte coverage	Compacted fine sub.	Loose fine sub.	Grassland	East basin	Northwest shore	Average fetch	Dist. to big trib.	Dist. to permanent trib.	Dist. to big marsh	Dist. to fish sanctuary
Total abundance	Gillnets-day									X		X	X
	Electrofishing-day	X	X	X	X								
	Seine-day 2		X		X				X	X		X	X
	Seine-day 3		X	X					X		X	X	
	Seine-night		X										
Total biomass	Electrofishing-night		X			X	X			X	X		
	Seine-day 2	X	X		X					X		X	
Species richness	Electrofishing-day		X										
	Seine-day 2		X	X	X				X				
	Seine-day 3		X	X	X								
	Seine-night												
	Electrofishing-night											X	X
%		17	75	33	42	8	8	0	25	33	17	42	25

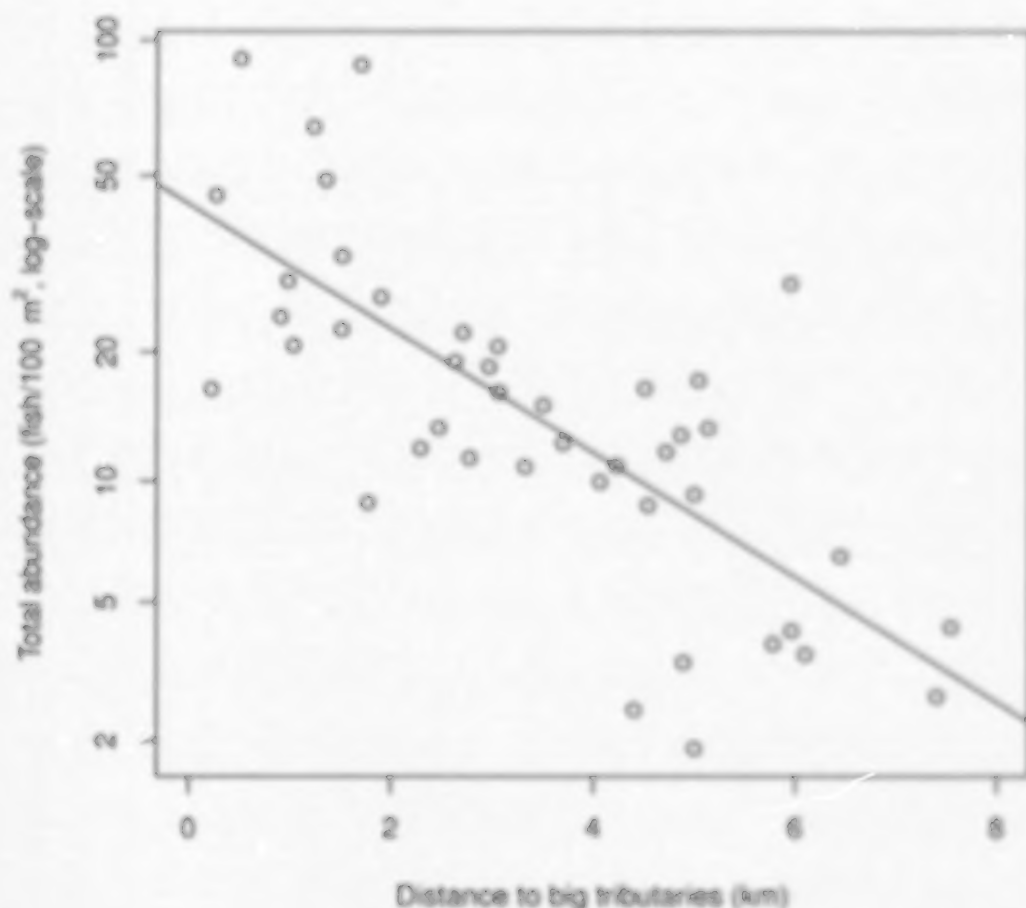


Figure 13. Fish total abundance (TA) captured during the 2013 electrofishing night survey as a function of the distance to the nearest big tributary (DBT). The significant linear relationship (p -value = 0.0001; R^2_{adj} = 0.54; R^2_{CV} = 0.51) equation is $\log_{10}(1+TA) = -0.14 \cdot DBT + 1.65$.

Objective 7) Evaluate the difference between daytime and nighttime estimates/models of metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone of reservoirs.

The difference between daytime and nighttime estimates/models of metrics of fisheries productivity in the littoral zone was assessed using the paired seining data collected at 30 sites in 2013 (only gear for which sampling was done during the day and the night of a same year). Comparisons of estimates and models were conducted using total community metrics (total abundance and biomass; species richness) and fish species. Mean, median, range, standard deviation and paired t-tests by permutation (comparing paired day and night data) were estimated for each total community metric. No statistically significant difference in total abundance or total biomass was noted between day and night (Table 11). Species richness was significantly higher when seining was done at night. Community-level fish-environment relationships were assessed using a combination of local (i.e. within site), lateral (i.e. shore characterization) and contextual (i.e. position relative to landscape attributes) environmental conditions (see Table 2). Statistically significant relationships between total fish abundance or

species richness and environmental conditions were found only for nighttime data (Table 12). No significant relationship was found for total fish biomass.

Table 11. Comparison of total abundance (TA), total biomass (TB) and species richness (SR) values during the day and at night. * Denotes permutational paired t-test statistical significance (p -value ≤ 0.05).

Fish variable	Mean	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation	Mean Difference	p -value
/day period							
TA Day	104.7	60.5	0	744.0	140.5	-68.0	0.07
TA Night	202.7	87.0	4.3	1079.2	176.9		
TB Day	725.1	178.7	0	4989.6	178.8	-51.43	0.83
TB Night	778.5	635.3	60.9	2341.7	76.7		
SR Day	5.6	5.5	0	10	50.2	-2.7	0.00017*
SR Night	8.3	8	3	15	11.4		

Table 12. Statistics of the relationships between fish occurrence variables (TA=total abundance; TB=total biomass; SR=Species richness) and environmental conditions during the day and at night. * Denotes statistically significant multiple linear models (p -value ≤ 0.05).

Fish variable	p -value	R^2_{adj}
/day period		
TA Day	0.10	0.27
TA Night	0.034*	0.39
TB Day	0.14	0.24
TB Night	0.11	0.27
SR Day	0.09	0.29
SR Night	0.027*	0.44

Species estimates included the abundance and the biomass of 13 fish species (only fish species for which abundance or biomass showed no temporal trend were used for analysis). Paired t-tests by permutation were run for each species using day and nighttime data from 30 sites. The abundance of Rock bass (*Ambloplites rupestris*), Sauger (*Sander canadensis*), Troutperch (*Perca americana*) and Walleye (*Sander vitreus*) were higher at night than during the day, while the biomass of Spottail shiner (*Notropis heterodon*), Troutperch, Walleye and Yellow perch (*Perca flavescens*) were higher at night. Statistically significant models could be developed for Logperch (*Perca caprodes*), Minie shiner (*Notropis velox*), Rock bass and Yellow perch abundance and Johnny darters (*Etheostoma nigrum*), Logperch, Minie shiner and Rock bass biomass at night, and Northern pike (*Esox lucius*) and Wood shiner (*Notropis texanus*) abundance and Wood shiner and Yellow perch biomass during the day. Across all fish metrics, more models could be developed from night surveys, but day surveys could produce better models (Table 3).

Fishing at night provided higher values of total fish abundance and species richness than daytime sampling. Fishing at night also permitted to increase the explanatory power of relationships between total abundance or species richness and environmental conditions. These findings are similar to those obtained by Emery (1973). He observed a marked increase in apparent fish abundance at night in shallow waters of Ontario lakes. In this study, nearly half the species were encountered more frequently at night than during the day. These observations were attributed in part to vertical migrations. Similarly, Sanders (1962) observed significantly higher abundance, biomass and richness of most species at night in near-shore waters of the Ohio and Muskingum rivers; catch differences were primarily attributed to diel movements of

birds to roosting during the evening twilight period. Compared to the 2012 observed higher catch per unit effort and richness of night with bird assemblages it seemed evidence of the 2012 Lampedusa event.

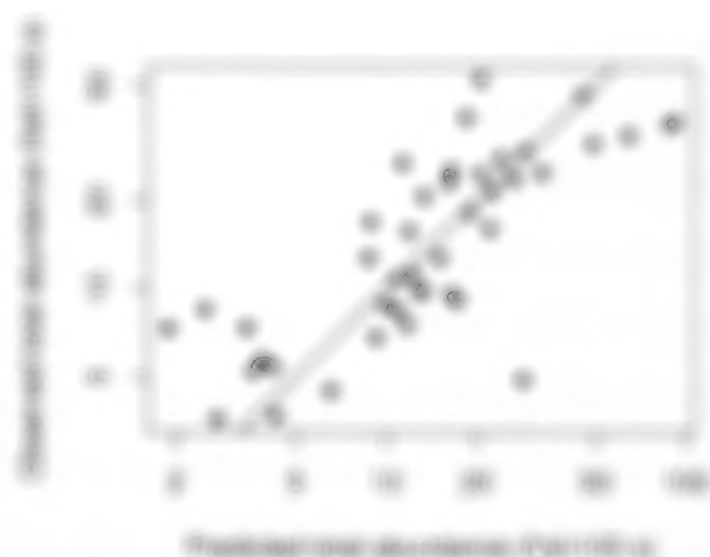
Relationships between electrofishing and fish catch at 40 sites and environmental conditions were also compared between the 2012 day survey and the 2013 night survey. Electrofishing at night in 2013 produced better models of total fish abundance but underperforming models of species richness, compared to the 2012 day survey (Table 12, e.g., Figures 11 and 13). Both surveys were unsuccessful to model total fish biomass. Across all fish metrics, the 2012 day electrofishing survey produced more models but the 2013 night survey produced models with higher R^2_{adj} (Table 14, e.g., Figure 14). However, these results are less straightforward to interpret than the above survey results as electrofishing day and night surveys were conducted on different years and are consequently subject to random inter-year differences (see Appendix 4).

Table 12. Statistics of fish-environment relationships obtained by total fish abundance, biomass and species richness when using 2012 daytime and 2013 nighttime electrofishing data.

Fish variable	Year-time period	p-value	R^2_{adj}	R^2_{max}
Total abundance (fish/100 m ²)	2012-day	0.0001	0.69	0.82
	2013-night	0.0001	0.72	0.79
Total biomass (g/100 m ²)	2012-day	0.47	0.04	0.79
	2013-night	0.49	0.02	0.72
Species richness (species)	2012-day	0.0001	0.76	0.89
	2013-night	0.0001	0.78	0.78

Table 14. Percentages (%) Number of predictive relationships obtained. Quantified between fish variables (total fish abundance, total fish biomass, species richness, and abundance, biomass or species richness) by species or by combination of species and sea-temperature and environmental conditions using 2012 daytime and 2013 nighttime electrofishing data. When (When R^2_{adj}) and maximum predictive power (the R^2_{max}) of fish-environment relationships are provided.

Year-time period	Species	% Models	Max R^2_{adj}	Max R^2_{max}
2012-day	47	27	0.74	0.89
2013-night	47	4	0.77	0.79

[illegible]

$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8}$

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[illegible]

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